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AGRICULTURAL MARKETING



JUNE 1966



HELP



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AGRICULTURAL MARKETING

Effective with the September issue, material concerning marketing research will not appear regularly in AGRICULTURAL MARKETING magazine. Marketing research articles will be published in AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH magazine of the Agricultural Research Service, USDA.

Contents

June 1966

Buying Beef for Your Home Freezer	3
Sixty Years of Federal Meat Inspection	4
Food Container Standards	6
The Nations Kids Keep Eating	7
Help Comes to Mississippi	8
What it Takes to Feed ½ Million People	10
Specialty Crop Growers Step Up Exports	11
Consumer and Marketing Briefs	12
Market Regulation and the Public Welfare	14
Check—And Double Check	16

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Cover Page

OPERATION HELP uses Office of Economic Opportunity funds, USDA-donated foods and nutrition education to help combat hunger in Mississippi. See page 8.

ORVILLE L. FREEMAN

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Buying Beef for Your Home Freezer

IF YOU OWN a home freezer, chances are you've thought about stocking it with beef. Whether you plan to buy several cuts, a quarter, or a whole carcass there are several factors to consider if you want to be sure of getting the best buy for your money.

One way to be sure is to let the U.S. Department of Agriculture help. USDA's Consumer and Marketing Service offers a grading program which tells you not only the quality of the beef you buy, but also the amount of meat you can expect to get from an individual carcass.

Most consumers are familiar with USDA's quality grades for beef. The shield-shaped grade mark is an excellent guide to the quality of the beef you buy.

If you want tender, juicy, flavorful meat, it is best to freeze only high-quality beef. This is why U.S. Choice, the most popular grade of beef, is also widely used in home freezing.

In addition to grading for quality, C&MS also grades beef for yield. The yield grades, which are used mainly by packers and suppliers, measure the amount of usable meat in a carcass or wholesale cut. There are five numerical grades ranging from yield grade 1, which marks carcasses of the highest yield, to number 5, found on carcasses of the lowest yield.

Under ordinary circumstances, as consumers, you do not have to be concerned with yield grades. Their benefit, unlike the quality grades, reaches you indirectly through their use as a pricing tool. But if you buy beef in carcass or wholesale form, yield grades can help you get more beef for your money.

The higher-yield carcasses may cost a little more, but there will be more usable meat—meatier cuts—in a No. 1 or No. 2 carcass than in a No. 5 of the same quality grade.

For example, if you buy a 650 pound carcass, each higher yield grade will give you at least 20 more pounds of boneless meat. There are similar differences between wholesale cuts and quarters of beef.

If you plan to buy part of a carcass, you should decide whether you want to get more steaks and roasts or more stewing and ground meat. A hindquarter gives you more steaks—porterhouse, club, and T-bone—and oven roasts. The forequarter will contain more cuts, such as those from the chuck, which must be pot roasted or made into ground and stew meat.

Another factor to consider is cost. Because they contain more desirable cuts, hindquarters generally cost several cents per pound more than forequarters of the same grade.

As a prospective buyer, you should also consider the cutting and processing of the meat. Make sure the meat is packaged in portions which fit the size of your family or which will be easy to cook. Most dealers will cut the meat to suit your needs.

Supermarket specials on particular cuts also offer a good way to stock your freezer with the family's favorites. Buying meat this way assures you of getting only the cuts you prefer.

Home freezers are designed to save money on grocery bills by allowing you to stock up on foods when supplies are plentiful and prices favorable. But buying beef in such cuts or of such quality that do not meet your family's preference can hardly be called money-saving.

This is a pitfall which a consumer encounters when he

buys beef in a form with which he is unfamiliar. In addition there may be hidden dangers—disreputable dealers—which make the buying difficult.

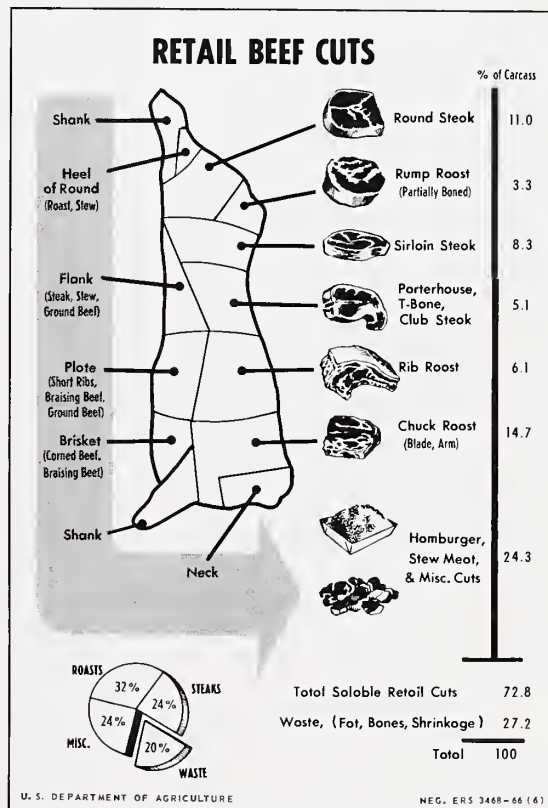
The majority of firms are reputable in their dealings with customers and in their advertising. However, there are some who will take advantage of a customer who lacks a knowledge of the product he is buying.

Misrepresentation and "bait and switch" advertising are two of the most common practices the buyer must watch. Misrepresentation may include leading the buyer to believe he is buying a specific USDA grade while, in fact, supplying him with meat from a lower grade animal or meat which has not been graded at all. Or, the buyer might receive meat from the forequarter instead of the hindquarter he thought he was buying.

"Bait and switch" advertising refers to the practice of advertising meat at a price designed to attract customers and then switching the customer to a higher priced meat.

Don't be taken in by advertising which offers "something for nothing." No dealer can afford to give beef away, and reputable ones will not pretend to do so.

To be sure, look for the Federal grade mark on the meat itself. The grade mark is your assurance that the beef will be the quality you want, and that you are getting real value for the price you pay.



Based on a typical yield grade 3 U.S. Choice carcass. Figures may vary with yield grade, cutting, and trimming.

60 years of

FEDERAL MEAT INSPECTION

By Robert K. Somers

Continuing progress in consumer protection.

WHAT MEAT WILL YOU serve your family next week—will it be ham, roast, frankfurters, a frozen dinner, or perhaps lamb chops? Your selection from your favorite meat counter will more than likely depend on what you served last week, and what's on special for the coming week.

Most consumers seldom consider the wholesomeness of meat in making their decision—a practice which probably stems from the knowledge that there is a Federal meat inspection program. This protection to American consumers, which has been in existence for 60 years this month, is part of the overall service to consumers maintained by the U.S. Department of Agriculture's Consumer and Marketing Service.

Federal meat inspection—which applies *only* to meat and meat products in interstate or foreign commerce—provides consumers with continuous inspection of meat through all states of processing.

Therefore, the Federal meat inspector serves as *your* "representative" in the packing plant. He does for you what you cannot do for yourself.

Before 1906, however, your parents or grandparents were not as fortunate. To them, the wholesomeness of their meat supply was an important question to be considered in shopping for meat for their families, since adulteration and

contamination of meat could affect their health.

More than likely they bought their meat from a neighborhood butcher shop, where the carcasses of animals hung from a rail in the back, and the butcher cut just the amount they wanted on a cutting block in the center of a saw-dust-covered floor. They had to rely on the butcher's integrity for assurance of wholesomeness.

The meat industry then was a giant, with multi-storied packing plants near railroads in what were known as "packing towns" of large cities. Even then, a large proportion of the meat was cured, smoked, or canned—though convenience foods as we know them today were non-existent. And there were few, if any, controls over the manner in which this meat was slaughtered, processed, labeled and distributed.

A limited form of Federal inspection had been started in May 1891. But, this was only a voluntary inspection of cattle and hogs intended for export.

The increasing economic power of the meat packers and other large corporations was increasingly viewed with distrust by some members of the public. Many new techniques were baffling consumers—creation of new foods such as oleo-margarine; extension of the shelf-life of meat through refrigerated storage; and, "renovation" of some

foods and "extending" others through chemicals, all done so skillfully that adulteration could not be detected by the consumer.

Then, shortly after the turn of the century, the muckrakers zeroed in on the packing industry—highlighted by Upton Sinclair's controversial novel, "The Jungle." Sinclair's expose of unsanitary conditions in Chicago packing-houses was picked up by newspapers and magazines across the country. The public pleaded for urgent reform with insistent demands for strict government inspection of all slaughtering and processing.

President Theodore Roosevelt, who advocated showing no leniency to the meat packers, strongly urged Congress to act on a meat inspection bill to insure wholesomeness from "the hoof to the can."

Senator Beveridge of Indiana responded with a bill providing for Federal meat inspection to cover all meat and meat products moving in interstate and foreign trade. After much heated debate, a bill embodying this concept was passed and became law on June 30, 1906, and is known as the Meat Inspection Act.

The Act required mandatory inspection of all meat and meat products moving in interstate and foreign commerce. This included—then as now—inspection before, during and after slaughter; during all processing steps; approval of all labels for processed meat products, and strong controls over the sanitation, facilities, and equipment used in meat packing plants operating under Federal inspection.

Meat inspection was first administered by the Bureau of Animal Industry, which later became part of USDA's Agricultural Research Service. It is now administered by three divisions in USDA's Consumer and Marketing Service—Livestock Slaughter Inspection Division, Processed Meat Inspection Division, and Technical Services Division—under the C&MS Deputy Administrator for Consumer Protection, in order to keep pace with the rapidly changing industry and strengthen protection to consumers.

Even in today's complex food marketing system—where mass transportation zooms products across the Nation—there are many packing plants that distribute their products only to consumers within their own State. Since they do not operate in interstate commerce, they are not covered by Federal inspection.

Last year nearly 19.5 million animals—representing about 15 per cent of the

total slaughter—were slaughtered by these non-federally inspected plants. In addition, approximately one-third of the processed meat products—including such popular items as hams, bacon, sausage, frankfurters, and luncheon meats—were produced by non-federally inspected packing plants.

Some of these meats and meat products were inspected under State or city inspection systems. These programs—if adequately enforced and properly financed—help assure the wholesomeness of meat and meat products which are not covered by the Federal law.

However, nine States do not have any form of meat inspection laws. Six other States have only general food laws which partially cover food processing, sanitation and labeling. Fourteen States are equipped with laws providing for voluntary meat inspection programs, all but two of which are paid for in whole or part by the participating packers. The remaining 21 States have laws requiring mandatory inspection of meat for wholesomeness.

In recent years, several States have requested and received assistance from Federal meat inspection officials to upgrade their State inspection programs. This Federal-State cooperation is increasing as the volume of meat production rises, and adequate inspection to insure wholesomeness, freedom from adulteration, and accurate labeling becomes more difficult.

Federal meat inspection today involves some of the same basic requirements as it did 60 years ago, although the techniques have changed as production and processing become more complex.

Before any establishment is granted Federal inspection, blueprints of the entire plant layout must be furnished to

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USDA for approval. Trained personnel review the blueprints and specifications to insure that all aspects of slaughtering, processing, shipping and receiving are acceptable. This is the first step in assuring proper sanitary and operating procedures and equipment for the production of wholesome meat and meat products.

Every live animal is examined in the holding pens by veterinarians or their trained assistants. Only those which are healthy are passed for normal slaughter. Animals having abnormalities are held back for separate slaughter under close supervision by a Federal inspector. Animals with abnormalities which ob-

viously make them unfit for food are condemned and destroyed, usually by rendering the carcass, to insure that they are not used for human food.

All slaughtering facilities and equipment are inspected continuously to insure high standards of sanitation.

Since passage of the National Humane Slaughter Act in 1958, all federally-inspected meat packers are strongly encouraged to utilize only humane methods and equipment in slaughtering operations. Today, approximately 96 per cent of all federally-inspected establishments reporting use approved humane slaughter methods.

Federal meat inspectors examine each carcass after slaughter, as well as internal organs and glands—any area in which unwholesome conditions could be discovered. If the carcass passes this examination it is stamped with the official "U.S. Inspected and Passed" mark. Carcasses or other items that are condemned are placed under strict control of the Federal inspector, and must either be destroyed or treated so that it is obviously unfit for human food.

During actual processing, all meat and non-meat ingredients are continuously checked to insure wholesomeness and preparation according to approved formulas. This includes checking curing solutions, processing times and temperatures, control over the use of extenders and other restricted ingredients, and supervising the filling of containers to insure compliance with the net weight statement on the label.

All labels used on meat and meat products prepared under Federal inspection are reviewed and approved by C&MS before use. Labels must contain the accurate product name; a list of ingredients; the name and place of business of the packer, manufacturer, or person for whom the product is prepared; the statement of quantity, and the mark of Federal inspection.

Foreign meat inspection systems are reviewed to insure that meat products certified by the foreign government for import into the U.S. are wholesome. In addition, products are re-inspected upon entry into the U.S. to further protect American consumers.

Ten meat inspection laboratories are maintained across the Nation to provide meat inspectors in the packing plants with supplemental scientific analysis to aid them in properly disposing of questionable meat and meat products. The laboratories also must approve any chemical or additive before use in processing. In addition, the labs check packaging materials, miscellaneous sub-

stances such as cleaning compounds and equipment lubricants, and new processing methods to insure that no adulteration of meat products can occur.

Federal meat inspection is continuing to grow in size and importance, as many meat packers expand their sales to include customers in other States.

More plants in more places are operating under Federal inspection—1,896 plants in 786 cities during March 1966, compared with 163 plants in 58 cities in 1906.

More than twice as many animals are being slaughtered under Federal inspection now—112 million animals in fiscal year 1965, compared to less than 50 million in 1906.

Just in the last 10 years, increased meat production, new processing techniques and new ingredients have placed an even greater responsibility on the Federal meat inspectors. For example, only 29,000 samples were tested by meat inspection laboratories in 1955, while more than 174,000 samples were tested in 1965—an increase of more than 600 per cent. Likewise, label approvals increased from 38,000 to 54,000.

Probably the largest increase in responsibility is the result of the consumer demand for convenience foods and sliced meats—the production of which has increased four times over what it was 10 years ago. Sliced meat products alone increased from 146 million pounds federally-inspected in 1955 to 502 million pounds in 1965. Convenience foods jumped from 64 million pounds to 454 million pounds in the same decade.

These are staggering quantities—yet, among them is the roast, ham, or hot dogs your family had for dinner last night, with complete assurance that it was wholesome.

Sixty years ago, the mark of Federal inspection was the mark of wholesome meat and meat products. It was a mighty important mark to your parents and grandparents, who fully appreciated its significance.

Today, the mark of Federal inspection applied by the Consumer and Marketing Service meat inspector is more important to you as a consumer. It represents continuous inspection throughout the complex and highly-mechanized production processes of today's meat plants, assuring you that the steaks, roasts, and great variety of convenience meat products you buy and eat are wholesome.

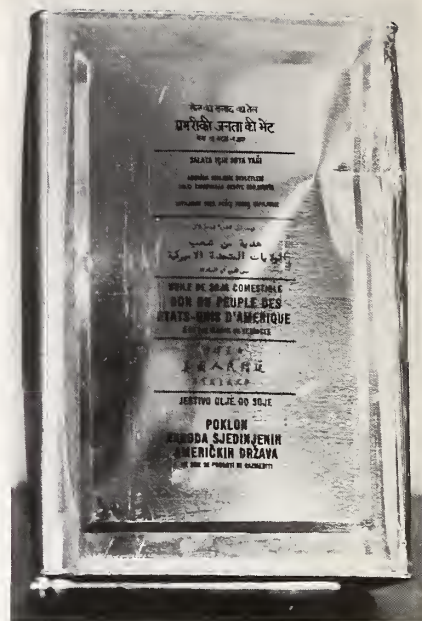
Although consumers have come to take it for granted, the assurance of wholesomeness you gain from the meat inspection stamp is one of your most important protections.

USDA DEVELOPS

Food Container Standards

By Robert F. Anderson

There are three types of defects under the new standards: "critical," not shown, which seriously affects usability; "major," left, which also affects usability but not seriously; "minor," like the slight dent at right, which affects a container's appearance but not its usability.



What are the U.S. Standards for Condition of Food Containers?

These standards, the first ever developed by the U.S. Department of Agriculture which cut across commodity lines, are designed to give a statistically sound, practical basis for evaluating the exterior condition of filled food containers. They were first developed in 1963 and were revised this past Spring to be up to date with the changing needs of the food marketing industry.

Just what do these standards do?

Simply stated, the standards furnish a yardstick to measure the acceptability of merchandise on the basis of container condition. For instance, the standards help a USDA grader determine if a shipment of food packed in cans meets an acceptable quality level—by giving him a means of determining the extent of defects (such as dents, breaks, and other damage to the can). The standards also provide a means of expressing, in mathematical terms, a desired quality level and a means of determining the size of sample needed for inspection to assure that a lot meets that quality level.

All types of containers which might be used to hold food. This includes all "immediate" or primary containers, such as cans, jars, cellophane or paper bags, and boxes. It also includes all shipping containers, such as cardboard and wooden boxes and crates.

Who uses these standards?

The standards are used primarily

by USDA's Consumer and Marketing Service in its purchase of foods for school lunch and for distribution to the needy. Commercial users of C&MS grading and acceptance services may request the "condition of containers" service as an additional factor in quality determination. The U.S. Department of Defense also uses some of the factors set forth in the standards in its food purchasing program.

What are the basic principles behind these standards?

They are based on four concepts:

1. The development of sampling plans keyed to the number of containers being inspected and on the severity of inspection desired by the user.
2. Establishment of normal, reduced, and tightened inspections based on the history of inspections for individual processors.
3. Use of "acceptable quality levels"

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(AQL's) and "operations characteristics curves" to serve as guides to the buyer and seller in determining the basis for acceptance or rejection of individual lots.

4. Development of tables and visual aids describing specific defects and their relative value in the inspection procedure.

What do you mean by an acceptable quality level?

A buyer does not want containers with defects but he realizes that some defects will occur in the processing and handling operations. Therefore he is willing to accept the merchandise even with a certain percentage of defects. This percentage is expressed as the "acceptable quality level."

You might have an AQL of 10.0—indicating not more than 10 defects for every 100 containers. On the other hand, an AQL of .065, would indicate less than 65 defects for every 100,000 containers!

How do you use a sampling plan under these standards?

A sampling plan tells you, first of all, how many samples should be drawn from a particular lot to permit an evaluation of container condition. It also describes the number of defects permitted for each sample under each AQL for acceptance. For example, the single sampling plan for a normal inspection tells you that for a lot of 5000 containers, 84 units should be examined. It also tells that if you specify an AQL of 1.5 (indicating about 15 defects per 1000), you can have three defects in this sample and still accept it, but if four defects are found, then the lot must be rejected under the sampling plan used.

In other words, we know statistically that if we find no more than three defects in the 84 units inspected, the lot will have no more than 15 defects per 1000 units 95 percent of the time. Note that

(continued page 13, column 2)

THE NATION'S KIDS KEEP EATING

Autumn, Winter, Spring . . .

FOR 20 YEARS, THE NATIONAL School Lunch Program has enabled children from all walks of life to enjoy low-cost, well-balanced lunches at school. The National School Lunch Act was signed June 4, 1946, and established school feeding as a national policy. It provided for the cash, food and technical help that has fostered the development of locally managed lunch programs in over 70,000 large and small public and non-profit private schools across the Nation.

One of the problems recognized in the 1946 Act was that of the child whose parents cannot afford even the low prices normally charged for school lunches—an average nationally of less than 30 cents per day. The Act stipulates that needy children receive the lunch for whatever amount they can pay—even a few pennies—or free if necessary. And through the years, the number of free lunches across the Nation has averaged about 10 percent of the total served.

In most schools, where the percentage of needy children is small, a few free lunches pose no problems. But in schools in poor neighborhoods, both rural and urban, a large proportion of the children qualify for free lunches, and in extreme poverty areas virtually all of

the children may be able to pay little or nothing. In such schools, which invariably are old buildings without lunch facilities of any sort, establishment of a "regular" lunch program is virtually impossible.

In recent years, the problem of the needy and hungry school child has been attacked in several ways. States have been encouraged to establish "variable rates" of reimbursement out of their National School Lunch Program allocation, so that the schools in areas of economic need may receive up to 15 cents cash per lunch, in contrast to the national average cash contribution, from Federal funds, of approximately 4½ cents. Extra donations of USDA foods are also made to needy schools. Federal and State school lunch workers have rallied local citizens, businessmen and service clubs to provide some of the facilities and equipment necessary for school food service.

Congress recognized the economic gap between schools in 1962, in an amendment to the National School Lunch Act which authorized special appropriations earmarked to pay a greater share of the lunch cost in schools with a high percentage of children from low-income families. For the 1965-66 school year, the first appropriation of

\$2 million was made under the amendment to develop programs demonstrating the effectiveness of such funding.

Other attacks are being launched. Some communities are including school feeding programs as part of their war-on-poverty Community Action Programs under Office of Economic Opportunity funds. Providing "bag lunches" to needy schools from the kitchens of larger, more modern schools is being increasingly adopted in cities, while some isolated rural schools have learned to "make do" with simple equipment such as a hot plate, and have solved the problem of utensils by asking each child to bring his own from home.

Many of these programs are recognized as gaps, until something better is available.

In 1966, the 20th anniversary of the National School Lunch Program finds school feeding established as an integral part of the education processes of all U.S. children. And as school enrollments increase, as burgeoning suburban areas create need for more modern schools, as urban renewal eliminates the out-model school structures, and as the principle that "You Can't Teach a Hungry Child" becomes universally recognized, the lunch program stands ready for another two decades of increasing service to the Nation.

. . . and Summer

SCHOOL CHILDREN ARE happily looking forward to summer vacation. Everything totally different from the way it is at school. Everything, except perhaps the federally-donated foods that many school children continue to get when they go to camp.

Like schools in regular session, any nonprofit summer camp, for children through high school-age, is eligible for donations of food acquired under the U.S. Department of Agriculture's price support and surplus removal programs. This year the selection includes flour, cornmeal, split peas, margarine, shortening, nonfat dry milk, enriched rice, rolled wheat, peanut butter, raisins and canned meat—offered for camp use by the USDA's Consumer and Marketing Service.

These donated foods help a great deal in bolstering the shoestring budgets of such non-profit camps as the YMCA and YWCA, 4-H Club, Boy's Club, Boy

Scouts and Girl Scouts, Easter Seal and various church camps.

A police officer director of a charity boy's camp reports that the Federal food donations often mean that he can take more city boys to camp than would otherwise be possible.

National encampments of youth groups often get special authorization for donated foods too—like the Girl Scout Senior Roundup of over 9000 teenagers held in an Idaho National Forest last July. Donated foods have also contributed to food plans for Boy Scout Jamborees.

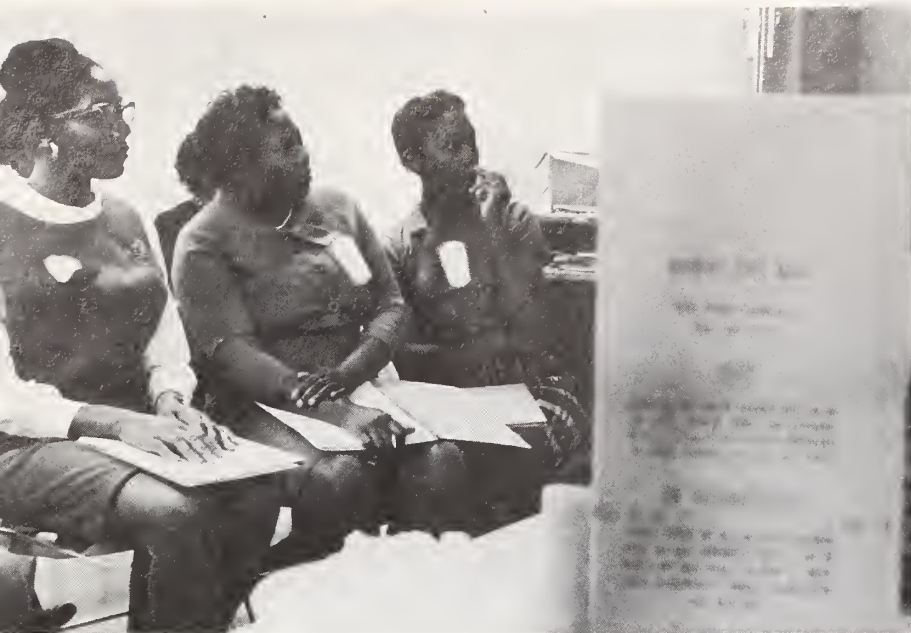
In total over 1.2 million child campers in the U.S. were eating federally-donated foods last summer. Some 7,250 summer camps received over 11 million pounds of food worth about \$2.5 million. Expectations are that summer food donations will reach at least as many youngsters this year and probably more.

All this is in addition to the donated-

foods help provided to Office of Economic Opportunity—sponsored Headstart projects for pre-school youngsters. Last summer more than 400,000 Headstarters were getting a dietary boost from donated foods.

For further information, write to the Commodity Distribution Division, Consumer and Marketing Service, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C. 20250. Please include your zip code.





"HELP" COMES TO MISSISSIPPI



OPERATION HELP means "HELP" to as many as 500,000 low income families in Mississippi. The project, financed by a \$1.6 million grant from the Office of Economic Opportunity to the Mississippi Welfare Department, calls for distribution of \$24 million worth of U.S. Department of Agriculture donated foods in addition to the USDA donated foods normally supplied to some Mississippi counties.

The expanded food assistance program was started February 6, 1966 and will continue for about 6 months. Secretary of Agriculture Orville L. Freeman described the demonstration project as, "further significant progress in our efforts to improve the nutrition of needy people out of this Nation's food abundance."

Nutrition education is one of the most important parts of Operation HELP. Often, home economists and program aides visit low-income homes to demonstrate how to use donated foods. In some instances nutrition education classes are held in the local high school, community house, or other available meeting hall.

Pictured above is Nutrition Education Specialist, Martha Underwood. Her class, financed by Operation HELP, is learning how to teach nutrition. The class members, themselves recipients of donated foods, are hired by the County to teach other food recipients what they have learned.

The primary goal of the instruction for the Program Aids is to enable them to demonstrate the value of a well balanced diet, to explain how to make the most of a low-income budget, and to show appetizing uses of USDA donated foods. For example, they are shown how to make cottage cheese with powdered milk and what types of vegetables to buy with their limited food money. There is even a recipe for bakeless cookies, made from donated foods.

The food is supplied by the Consumer and Marketing Service of the U.S. Department of Agriculture; the "Help" is supplied by the Mississippi Welfare Department. All pictures were taken at the Holmes County Welfare Department, Lexington, Mississippi.



A Program Aid explains the need to buy or grow fresh fruits and vegetables which, used along with USDA-donated foods, will provide a well-balanced, nutritious diet. The recipients' increasing interest in nutrition education is reflected in their faces in these pictures (from top).





Miss Evelyn Gandy, Mississippi Commissioner of Public Welfare, and a C&MS official inspect food supplies at a Jackson warehouse.

WHAT IT TAKES TO FEED ½ MILLION PEOPLE

Fifteen million pounds of donated food per month aid needy Mississippians

A DELUGE OF USDA-donated food "suddenly" appeared in Mississippi early in 1966, when 75 of Mississippi's 82 counties began full participation in the U.S. Department of Agriculture's food-for-needy-families program. The State's other 7 counties participate in USDA's Food Stamp Program.

Some of this food comes from stocks acquired by USDA in its price-support and surplus-removal activities. It was bought from firms in more than 13 States, including Mississippi. Moving it into Mississippi from the 12 States is a gigantic task, but there are few problems.

There are few problems because workers in USDA's Consumer and Marketing Service, which administers the program, have more than 30 years' experience in the logistics of distributing America's farm abundance to needy people.

How many Mississippians are benefiting, or will ultimately benefit? About 500,000 now and 800,000 ultimately, according to current estimates.

Under this food-assistance program, each participant receives about 27 pounds of food each month. This means that nearly 15 million pounds of food are needed each month to take care of Mississippi's current needs. This is 7,500 tons. Allowing 40 cubic feet for each ton of boxed, bagged, or canned food (a standard measurement for a freight-ton of merchandise) means that Mississippi is getting 300,000 cubic feet of food each month. Accumulated in one place, this amount of food would cover nearly 7 acres to a depth of one

foot. (A football field, including the end zones, is about 1¼ acres.). And if the food were stacked in a tube, one square foot in cross section, the tube would reach the height of 240 Empire State buildings.

But the potential of this program cannot be measured in tons, cubic feet, or pounds. When Mississippi gets 15 million or so pounds of USDA food each month, it means that 500,000 or so Mississippians have a chance to improve their diets and gain the strength and energy needed to further help themselves. USDA's food-assistance programs are based on humanitarian considerations and on the premise that food can be used as a basic and long-range weapon in the war on poverty.

Mississippi's demonstration food program has further connotations. It was designed to develop methods and procedures that can be adapted by other States where lack of local resources limits participation in USDA's food-donation programs. The Office of Economic Opportunity financed Mississippi's participation and USDA is furnishing the food. State and local welfare workers and others are doing the day-by-day chores that make any program succeed.

The chores include receiving, storing, protecting, distributing, and accounting for the USDA-donated foods as well as seeking out and certifying eligibles and encouraging them to participate in the program.

The food is initially stored by the State in commercial warehouses in

Jackson, Drew, and Tylertown, Miss. It is routed to distribution points in commercial trucks. Each day, this food-for-needy-families program becomes more and more a part of Mississippi's economy, providing jobs and business opportunities for hundreds.

Bringing this USDA food into Mississippi requires nearly 250 freight cars each month. If these cars appeared at one time at the warehouses—eighty at each—and assuming five men and two forklift trucks at each location to unload them, it would take ten 40-hour weeks to get the cars unloaded.

Each participant in Mississippi's food-for-needy-families project receives these amounts of food each month (either suggested or maximum rates set by USDA): ½ pound of bulgar; 1 pound of margarine; ½ pound of corn grits; 5 pound of corn meal; 7½ pounds of flour; 1 can (30 ounces) of canned meat; 4½ pounds of nonfat dry milk; ½ pound of green split peas; ½ pound of raisins; 2 pounds of rice; 1½ pounds of shortening; and 1½ pounds of rolled wheat.

To meet Mississippi's needs for margarine in any one month requires some 31 carlots since margarine is shipped 32,400 pounds to the carlot. To meet the needs for corn meal, however, requires 25 carlots since corn meal is shipped 50,000 pounds to the carlot.

Here again careful planning is manifested. The food must be shipped in economical carlots—without the danger of oversupplying some outlets.

Specialty Crop Growers Step Up Exports

By Joseph Genske

GROWERS OF SEVERAL U.S. specialty crops—like almonds, walnuts, raisins, prunes, and dates—are finding that “distant” world markets are not as far away as they seemed a few years ago.

In fact, lately these specialty crop industries have been achieving marked international marketing successes. The successes have been largely the result of cooperative group action, carried out by growers and handlers on a unified basis, often through each industry’s Federal marketing order program.

Take the *almond* industry, for example. This year, the industry expects to export 25 million pounds of nuts to markets in Sweden, West Germany, the United Kingdom, Canada, Japan, and

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many other countries around the world. That’s one-third of the total crop, and about three times the quantity exported in 1962.

How are they doing it? Through aggressive, imaginative merchandising, to be sure—but also largely through group action taken under their marketing order.

Under the order, which is run by the industry itself with the assistance of the U.S. Department of Agriculture’s Consumer and Marketing Service, growers and handlers comply with certain established regulations to stabilize marketings and improve their returns.

Almonds that aren’t needed to supply the normal demand—those tagged “surplus” under the order—are set aside in a pool, to make sure they don’t overload the primary market. These almonds can be sold only in eligible surplus outlets—primarily export. To be exported, they have to meet minimum quality standards when examined by Federal-State inspectors.

The surplus almonds also have to be sold at prices equal to or higher than minimum export prices established for the pool. Although these minimum export prices are usually set lower than prevailing domestic prices, U.S. almonds have been selling on the foreign

market at prices above those paid for similar almonds from competing countries, because of their availability—as a result of stabilized supplies—and their clean, uniformly high quality.

In fact, the reception overseas has been so favorable that during the 1964-65 and 1965-66 seasons, U.S. almond exports have exceeded the specified “surplus” quantity, and prices paid have equalled—sometimes surpassed—domestic prices.

Some of the other specialty crops—including raisins, prunes, walnuts, and dates—have pool arrangements under their Federal orders, too. In the case of *raisins*, a surplus pool removes the excess from the domestic market, and at the same time, makes a “two-price” system possible—one for raisins sold in the U.S. and one that permits our raisins to compete in world markets.

Realizing that a stable price structure will do much more to increase export demand than one that fluctuates, *prune* growers this past year added a reserve pool to their Federal order.

How have the raisin and prune industries fared in world markets? Last year, raisins worth \$13 million to producers were exported—27 percent of the total U.S. crop. And all were inspected under marketing order regulations that required the raisins to meet the same quality standards as domestic shipments. Prune growers shipped almost 30 percent of their crop abroad, with a farm value of more than \$11 million.

Results of regulations set under the *date* marketing order, too, have been paying off in the form of increased exports—3½ million pounds in the 1963-64 season, 5½ million in 1964-65. These regulations restrict the quantities of dates that handlers may market domestically, and thus encourage them to develop export outlets. The regulations have been particularly beneficial, since the domestic market falls short of using the annual date production by about one-third.

Marketing research and development projects financed under these orders are also contributing to expanded exports.

For instance, last fall the *walnut* marketing order administrative board

displayed and offered samples of walnuts and bakery products containing walnuts in a big food exhibit at the U.S. Trade Center in Tokyo. The display exposed some 7,000 Japanese food industry representatives to U.S. walnuts. The board’s survey team—financed jointly by marketing order funds and USDA’s Foreign Agricultural Service—also went into many other countries in Europe and the Pacific Area to assess the export potential. The picture, they learned, was bright—largely because of the year around availability and uniform quality of U.S. walnuts.

During a seven-month period of 1964-65, U.S. walnut exports shot upward to 10 million pounds (inshell basis), compared to 1½ million pounds during the previous same seven-month period.

The raisin marketing order has been instrumental in developing the Japanese market for U.S. raisins. After surveying the market potential there, the committee that administers the order agreed with importers in Japan to ship them raisins from the surplus pool. As a result, since the 1960-61 season—when they took 10,000 tons—these Japanese importers have purchased raisins from the pool each year. During 1964-65, the quantity they bought jumped to 18,000 tons.

Many specialty crop industries are optimistic about the future for exports of their commodities. What they have already accomplished through unified group action could well be just a beginning.

U.S. almond growers are enjoying a brisk export trade. This year, one third of their crop will be destined for overseas customers.



CONSUMER AND MARKETING BRIEFS

Selected short items on C&MS activities in consumer protection, marketing services, market regulation, and consumer food programs.

OREGON ALIGNS EGG WEIGHT REQUIREMENT

The Oregon Department of Agriculture has set the required weight for Jumbo size eggs at 30 ounces per dozen. The requirement for Jumbo eggs in this State was formerly 29 ounces.

Oregon's net weights for eggs are now the same as the U.S. Department of Agriculture weight classes and the weight classes of Oregon's neighboring States of Idaho, Washington, and California.

The change was made after a hearing on the subject at which all who testified approved of the change.

C&MS CHECKS MAIL-ORDER SEEDS

Those seeds you bought by mail—are they as good as the advertisement claims? Since seeds sold directly by a mail-order seed company to a consumer are not ordinarily inspected under the Federal Seed Act, the consumer has no way of telling if the seeds will live up to the high standards of that law.

In an attempt to find out whether mail-order firms were complying with the Federal Seed Act, seed technologists in USDA's Consumer and Marketing Service recently made an informal spot-check of mail-order seeds. Technologists bought the seed under their own names and home addresses, and then the seeds were inspected in C&MS laboratories.

In all, 310 specimens of vegetable seeds, from 28 different companies, were tested. C&MS technologists found that 93 percent of the lots were *above* the standards prescribed by the Federal Seed Act, and were of good planting quality. Nine of the items were definitely low-quality seed, and 12 items (or 4 percent of the total) were considered unfit for planting.

C&MS technologists concluded that the consumer generally gets good quality seed from mail-order firms, and that the majority of such firms are complying with the Federal Seed Act.

PLENTIFUL FOODS FOR JUNE

Consumers can look forward to a selection of seasonal vegetables during June, according to the Consumer and Marketing Service's Plentiful Foods List. Thrifty housewives will do well to keep an alert eye on incoming shipments. In the overall supply picture for June, they may find such tasty items as golden and white sweet corn, tomatoes, celery, cucumbers and carrots, green and yellow snap beans, green peppers, cabbage and lettuce, and supplies of tender asparagus.

Raisins are still on the list for June, as the latest crop is estimated to be the largest in 13 years. Split peas and lentils are in excellent supply too, and prices continue very favorable to food shoppers.

Canned red salmon rounds out the Plentiful Foods List. The 1965 pack of 2 million cases was 2½ times that of a year earlier. A recent roundup of inventories shows they are more than three times those of the relatively low stocks of a year earlier.

Weather's capricious hand may play a disappointing role in certain production areas, but generally speaking, many of the old favorites should be found at your nearest store.

THREE PARTY EGG CONTRACT GAINS MOMENTUM

A trend toward three-party egg contracts is gaining momentum in the Midwest, report is to the Poultry Division of the Consumer and Marketing Service indicate. The three party egg

contract is made when the producer, hatcheryman, and feed man divide the gross receipts according to their contribution.

Richard C. Larkin, Chief, Program Analysis Branch of C&MS' Poultry Division, said these "share the risk" contracts were economically somewhere between a thoroughly integrated system and a completely independent system. The hatcheryman furnishes started pullets, medicine, insurance and taxes on the birds, markets the eggs, keeps the records, and provides a service program. The feed man provides feed and some medication. The producer provides facilities, utilities and labor.

The hatcheryman's share of profit ranges from 26 to 31 percent. The feed man gets from 50 to 55 percent and the producer gets 15 to 19 percent of the gross receipts.

VIRGINIA HOLDS "HOW TO DO IT" MARKETING SESSION

One of the best ways to keep the food distribution system of a State healthy is to keep marketing personnel informed on latest developments. With this in mind, the Virginia Department of Agriculture each year sponsors a one-day seminar for market news and market development personnel as a concentrated orientation in economic marketing trends.

The theme of this year's conference, held in Richmond, was: "Resource Information: the Key to Future Marketing."

Guest speakers from the Consumer and Marketing Service, U.S. Department of Agriculture, were Harold F. Breimyer, Staff Economist, and George H. Goldsborough, Director of the Matching Fund Program.

About 25 State marketing personnel attended the discussions which pointed up the need for reliable basic information in developing marketing programs and the sources of such information.

Also discussed were the changing organizational structure in buying and selling farm products and some how-to-do-its on solving and implementing State and local marketing problems.

CHEYENNE INDIANS RECEIVE USDA DONATED FOODS IN SNOW EMERGENCY

During a snow emergency, about 20 tons of donated foods were distributed by snowplows to 2,500 Indians on the Cheyenne Reservation in South Dakota. On the Rosebud Reservation in South Dakota, emergency distribution of about 2,000 pounds of donated foods was made to 100 snowbound Indians. As an aftermath of heavy snows, the Standing Rock Indian Reservation was seriously flooded. Indian families were evacuated from low lands to schools and community halls at Little Eagle on the Grand River.

FOOD STAMP NEWS

Because Oriental retailers in Los Angeles had many questions about the Consumer and Marketing Service's Food Stamp Program, Mr. Dan Yee, district sales representative for a food processor, visited the FSP project office to learn about the program.

He later appeared on a Chinese language broadcast over a local radio station and spoke about the FSP. So many telephone inquiries were received as a result of the broadcast that it was decided that material would be made up to get FSP information to the Oriental community. Work is currently being done on a translation of pertinent FSP materials into Chinese, to be mimeographed and distributed to Chinese-speaking retailers who are interested in becoming authorized.

• • •

February 1966 figures showed 962,900 low-income people taking part in C&MS' Food Stamp Program. And in March, April and May, families in some 99 new counties and cities in numerous States—including Hawaii for the first time—were able to participate in the expanding program. By May 29, fifth anniversary date of the opening of the first "pilot" program in McDowell County, W.Va., there were 299 areas in 38 States and the District of Columbia operating permanent Food Stamp Programs.

(from page 6)

the percentage of defects allowed in a sample is not the same as the AQL—or percentage of defects permitted in the entire lot. The sampling plan, therefore, is a guide—based on the laws of probability—to give us a scientifically reliable prediction of the quality of a total lot based on a small sample.

What do you mean by defects and how do you classify them?

A defect is any condition of a container that might lower its value on the market place. The standards classify defects into three categories. A "critical" defect is one that seriously affects the usability of the container, like a leak in a can. A "major defect" also affects the usability of the container, like a leak in a serious nature—for example a deep dent in a can. A "minor defect" affects only the appearance of a container but not its usefulness. An example of a minor defect would be a slight dent in a can. In addition an "insignificant defect" is a flaw in the container that does not materially affect appearance and does not affect usability of the container. Insignificant defects are not recorded.

What is the purpose of classifying defects?

By identifying defects in terms of their importance or seriousness, you can inspect a sample more scientifically and objectively. For most inspection, a different AQL is assigned each class of defects. The standards recommend an AQL of 0.25 for "critical" defects, AQL 1.5 for "major" defects and an AQL 6.5 for "total" (critical, major, and minor) defects.

In other words, not more than 25 "critical" defects per 10,000, 15 "major" defects per 1000, or 65 total defects per 1000 containers.

How were these standards developed?

A special Working Group was organized by C&MS' Deputy Administrator George Grange in the spring of 1963 to determine if a uniform standard for examining containers by all C&MS inspectors was practical and workable. The working group was composed of specialists from many fields in C&MS. At present, besides myself, members of this group are R. P. Bartlett, Jr., Statistical Staff; A. R. Gulich, Poultry; D. C. Dunham, Fruit and Vegetable; K. L. Nuernberg, Livestock; W. A. Dunstan, Commodity Distribution; M. M. Kuper, Grain, and Dr. A. J. Logie, Meat Inspection.

Special assistance to the group has been given by: J. N. Constantine, (deceased); C. E. Murphey, R. L. Albert, Fred Dunn and J. R. Idol.

MEAT TIPS

—from meat inspectors
of USDA's Consumer
and Marketing Service

USDA meat inspectors rejected a proposal to apply a new substance to meat wrapping paper to extend the shelf-life and natural color of the enclosed product. They felt the retention of natural color, beyond the normal time during storage, could mislead the consumer.

* * *

Any statement appearing on the label of a Federally-inspected meat product must be accurate. A recent label bearing the words "Low Fat Content" was rejected by USDA's Consumer and Marketing Service. USDA felt it would be more accurate if the label showed the approximate quantity of fat to allow the consumer to make his own judgment whether the product has a "low fat content."

* * *

Federal labeling regulations for meat products, administered by USDA meat inspectors, require that any illustration on the label of a package must accurately picture what is inside. When an illustration shows the article on a serving tray or plate, with or without other food, the article must be capable of being served as shown. USDA recently received a complaint from a consumer that an illustration on a canned ham did not look like the actual product. The illustration pictured a well-trimmed ham, free of fat, while the product had a fat covering of approximately $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch over the surface of the ham, and large fat pockets in it. The manufacturer has been ordered to correct either the label or the product to make them alike.

Unethical competition can destroy our competitive marketing system.



Market Regulation and the Public Welfare

By Harold F. Breimyer

IT IS SOMETIMES SAID that a word exerts tyranny.

This could be true of the term, "regulation." It is often applied to a number of the marketing services of the U.S. Department of Agriculture commonly called by that name. Examples are the "regulatory" services to insure integrity of commercial warehouses, to prevent fraud on commodity futures exchanges, to check accuracy of scales on livestock markets, and to stop a vegetable buyer from renegeing on his deal.

The word "regulation" is hardly appealing. Its public-relations-index is almost zero.

It also is a misnomer.

A few "regulatory" activities do truly regulate. For example, the charges public stockyards levy for handling livestock are subject to regulation under the Packers and Stockyards Act. But this kind of action is comparatively rare.

To complete the irony on word use, the biggest regulatory program of the USDA is not called by that name but is "inspection." It is the inspection of poultry and red meat to ensure wholesomeness and freedom from disease.

The bulk of the services tagged as "regulatory" could be better defined as the setting up of trade practice rules. Some rules describe norms or standards that must be adhered to in doing business

but the vast majority only delineate limits or boundaries to acceptable trade practices.

Most rules are virtually self-enforcing. The integrity of market firms, and their recognition that common rules are needed, assure broad compliance with them. Responsible firms are careful to stay within trade practice bounds.

Some enforcement is of course necessary. It generally takes two forms: the spot check, and the response to appeal from an aggrieved party. In addition, for some regulatory programs certain reports are submitted regularly and records are audited. These routine activities aid compliance.

Federal rules for trade practices in agricultural marketing are a counterpart to similar private rules set up on all organized markets. For example, any wholesale produce market or commodity exchange has its internal regulations. In large measure, Federal regulations result from the fact that the marketing system for farm products is national in scope—and international. For such a system national standards for practices are desirable.

In addition, State governments assume responsibility for various trade practices in marketing within the States. Federal and State officials keep in touch with each other, and a number of pro-

grams are carried out cooperatively.

The Philosophy of Market Regulation

Market regulation—the naming of boundaries to acceptable behavior—wins support for the practical reason that it helps to make market trading run smoothly.

Without exaggeration, it is an operating necessity in a free-enterprise marketing system.

But regulation may also be looked at as an expression of deeply held philosophy of proper relations between government and business in a democracy.

The philosophy it incorporates may be expressed this way: If our farm marketing system is basically to be activated by competitive pursuit of self-interest, some precautions must be taken in order to make certain that competitive methods do not reach the point of being destructive of competition itself, or in conflict with the public interest.

Historically, the idea that competition alone would keep markets in balance and serve the public good was a radical one. Until near the time of our Declaration of Independence it had been believed that the only choice was to direct an economic system centrally. Corporations were to be licensed by the Crown

and kept subject to it. Private groups, it was thought, could not be trusted with economic freedom because they would be too selfish, too grasping, too eager to exploit each other.

Yet it was eventually found possible to harness the motive power of self-interest. It was done by setting up a system of open competitive markets. These put individuals and firms in contest with each other, so counterpoised that as each pursued his own interests he would be subject to checkmating by others doing the same thing; and the productive energies so generated would serve the public good.

It has long been crystal clear that competition itself is not the goal—the end sought—in our farm marketing system. The goal is to transfer foods and other farm products from farmer to final consumer efficiently, and at prices that are fair to all parties. Competition is the means to that end. It is not an end of itself.

From the beginning, the code of laws in all democratic Nations has both prescribed standards and established restrictions so that competition would be conducted in such a way that the social objectives would in fact be served and potential evils avoided. We commonly think of the Magna Charta of 1215 as a document by which the nobles told King John he had to consult with them if he were to rule them. True, it said that. But that famous manifesto also set terms for commerce and trade. There could be no fish weirs in inland waters—they would interfere with navigation. Weights and measures were prescribed for trading in corn, wine and ale. And so on.

Forms of Regulation

Rules to require fair competition take two forms. One kind of law restricts monopoly. This is called anti-trust law. The second kind is trade practice law.

Anti-trust laws began in the last century. The Sherman Act of 1890 was the first major national law. Most anti-trust responsibilities as to farm marketing are lodged with the Department of Justice and the Federal Trade Commission.

However, the Packers and Stockyards Division of the Consumer and Marketing Service of USDA is charged with anti-trust enforcement in livestock and poultry marketing.

Trade practice laws, rules and regulations have long been used to keep trading in farm products as fair, equitable and orderly as possible. The rules cover a wide assortment of practices. Regulatory activities range from checking scales in central-market selling of livestock, to requiring truthful labeling of agricultural seed, to prohibiting below-cost pricing or rebates in selling meat (devices large firms can use to drive out small ones), to inspection of commercial warehouses to protect the interests of persons storing in them.

Laws calling for functions such as these include the Perishable Agricultural Commodities Act, Commodity Exchange Act, Packers and Stockyards Act, Federal Seed Act, Standard Container Acts, U.S. Warehouse Acts, and a couple of others.

In several of the regulatory programs, the appeal procedure, sometimes extending to reparations, is a unique feature. It amounts to a kind of small claims court. In fact, it is a means for getting adjudication faster than could be done through courts—and before the evidence wilts or is eaten. A shipper of produce or meat whose buyer refuses to pay on grounds that specifications for quality were not met can ask for a quick grade check. If grade standards are found to have been fulfilled, the buyer is without defense in failing to pay. In other cases, a buyer may default entirely, and the help of regulatory officials is enlisted. One of the teeth in regulatory authority is the right to deny a fresh produce dealer a license to continue or resume his business until he has satisfied all claims against him, or a livestock dealer a similar registration until he has proved his solvency.

The Needs of a Decentralized Market System

A decentralized system for the marketing of farm products could not survive without the help of trade practice regulation.

That system brings together individuals and firms of all sizes and kinds, from small farmer to nationwide food processor. Products are bought and sold in hundreds of local markets, and they are shipped from coast to coast. If the interests of all parties are to be protected, there must be clear understanding as to the rules by which trading is to be conducted—or, better started, of those by which it will *not* be conducted.

In principle, rules could be set by law and enforced by the courts. In practice, this procedure would be too slow and cumbersome. However, the courts always stand as a last resort. Judgments of the court serve to keep regulatory actions within the terms of their enabling laws.

It is self-evident that trade practice regulation embodies democratic values, notably its uniform application to all parties. The same quality takes much of the onus from it. When individuals and firms know that all their competitors must abide by the same rules they do, they feel little sense of restriction. A well chosen set of rules is truly restrictive only on the unethical firm.

No impression should be left that all of agricultural marketing is equally protected by trade practice regulation. Far from it, as each regulating act was enacted to meet a specific problem, the acts taken together amount to a patchy mosaic. Understandably, the greater attention has been paid to the marketing of perishables.

Nor is there any brief for holding to outdated or ill-drawn trade rules. Rules must be modified from time to time to fit changes in marketing—to make them fit new practices as necessary. Rules that are no longer applicable should be removed.

But for all their diverse and ever-changing forms, the trade practice regulations of the U.S. Department of Agriculture stand as a vital protection to the decentralized, competitive marketing system for farm products. Without them, that system could not endure.

The author is Staff Economist, C&MS, USDA.

OFFICIAL BUSINESS

CHECK—AND DOUBLE CHECK

Why C&MS' Packers and Stockyards Division tries to settle complaints informally.

By Tom Stone

EACH YEAR, MORE THAN two million producers market \$11.5 billion worth of livestock and \$1.5 billion worth of live poultry—accounting for about one-third of the total cash receipts of all American farmers.

As a result of these marketing transactions, the U.S. Department of Agriculture last year received nearly 4,900 complaints of violations of the Packers and Stockyards Act—the Federal statute which regulates interstate trade in livestock, poultry, and meat. Formal prosecution of these complaints can—and sometimes does—become expensive and time-consuming.

To keep pace with such a vast and still-expanding industry, the Packers and Stockyards Division of USDA's Consumer and Marketing Service has had to make some drastic changes in its methods of enforcing the Act. The P&S Division, for example, is making every effort to settle as many complaints as possible on an informal basis. More than 90 percent were handled informally last year.

The parties to the complaints were brought together by P&S Division personnel, the facts in the cases were established, and amicable and immediate settlements were worked out—saving countless dollars and time for both the Federal government and the parties involved.

Typical of these informal settlements is the actual case of a farmer from Illinois—let's call him Mr. Jones. Mr. Jones runs a typical Mid-western "small farm" operation. He supplements the income from his field crops by operating a small grain elevator and by selling

commercial laying hens.

A few months ago, Mr. Jones sold two loads of hens to a Tennessee poultry hauling firm. The sale was made through a broker in Illinois, but the Tennessee hauler mailed the check for payment—more than \$2,000—directly to Mr. Jones who deposited it in his bank account. A few days later, the check was returned because of "insufficient funds" in the hauler's account.

Mr. Jones—depending on the money

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from the check to pay some feed bills—got in touch with the hauler in Tennessee. Even after several attempts, the check had not been made good.

The broker who had handled the sale of the laying hens suggested that Mr. Jones get in touch with the P&S Division's Area Office in National Stockyards, Ill. He did. The P&S Area Supervisor took down all the details of the transaction—names, dates, locations—and immediately forwarded them to the P&S Division's Memphis Area Office.

A few days later, a couple of members of the Memphis Area Office staff paid the poultry hauler a visit. Among other things, they explained to him that failing to pay for poultry purchased in interstate commerce is a violation of the P&S Act. They also spelled out in detail the penalties which can be imposed for violations of the Act.

Before the P&S men left his office, the poultry hauler obtained a certified check for the full amount due Mr. Jones and mailed it to Illinois.

Mr. Jones got his money. He, the

Government, and the poultry hauler were all saved the time and expense of having to settle the matter through formal action.

Of course, not all complaints are settled as quickly and simply as Mr. Jones' case. Facts and details in many cases are more complex, and certain willful violations of the P&S Act require formal action.

Anyone charged in a formal complaint is given the opportunity for a hearing on the charges. Hearings take time, and require a good deal of travel by USDA Hearing Examiners, and attorneys and witnesses for both USDA and the respondents. After a hearing, it may take weeks or sometimes months—depending on the complexity of the case and the workload of other cases—before a final decision is issued.

Even though the P&S Division doesn't always obtain voluntary compliance with the P&S Act and not all cases are settled informally, this approach to P&S Act enforcement has become increasingly important—in fact, absolutely necessary—as the number of complaints has increased.

The scope of the P&S Act has broadened to the point where the P&S Division is now responsible for regulating the business conduct and trade practices of some 2,250 public stockyards, 3,000 private livestock buying stations, 16,500 commission firms and dealers, 3,200 meat packers, and 1,000 live poultry dealers and licensees—with a total staff of less than 200 people, including clerical and stenographic help.

That's one reason informal settlements are so important.